3.1 **THE COST OF STRESS**

Stress damages psychological and physical well-being (Edwards 1992). The stress influences through psychological processes and influences health through four types of interrelated mechanisms, cognitive, emotional, behavioural and physiological (Levi, 1994). Consequences of stress can be extremely debilitating (Bluen & Barling 1988). The multifaceted effects of stress, and the problems inherent in this field of research make the estimation of costs of occupational stress virtually impossible. However, several attempts have been made to study the stress-illness relationship (Lazarus, Delongis, Folkman & Gruen, 1985, Rahe, 1987). Traditionally occupational hazards were regarded simply in terms of biochemical or physical agents which might more or less directly, physically damage the person. Relatively little attention by contrast was then paid by occupational health professionals to psychological factors as a source of stress, or to effects on psychological health. (Cooper & Payne, 1980, Perrewe, 1991).
3.1.1 **Physiological Strain and Stress**

Kearns (1986) suggested that 60% of absence from work is caused by stress-related disorders and that in U.K. alone 100 million working days are lost each year. The fact that many large companies are spending money to reduce stress problems for their employees (e.g. Fletcher and Hall 1984; Cooper 1986) is probably a significant indicator that they believe that it is more than mental health which is improved by such exercises.

Recently Heim (1992) surveyed female doctors and found stress responsible for health risk with an alarming 10 years lower life expectancy than in general population. Moreover, the kind of coping strategy used (e.g. avoidance or problem focused) is a significant predictor of health outcomes (O’Neill & Zeichner, 1985).

An incidence of stress related physical mental illness had been reported on studies on teachers in elementary and secondary schools (Frese, 1985; Holt, Fine & Tollefson, 1987; Solomon & Zager, 1991). In a recent study of 365 school teachers, Seidman and Zager (1991) administering the teacher burnout scale (TBO), found a number of physical and psychological problems (e.g. stomach aches and depression) to be related to Teacher burnout factor (Pierce & Molloy, 1990). On a sample of male and female student teachers Houtman and Bakker
(1991) found increase in heart rate, cortisol excretions and subjective anxiety responses in anticipation or during a stressful situation.

In an Indian study head constables reported backaches and constables reported stomach aches as a result of stress (Pillai, 1987 Jagdish, 1987). Stress also has an adverse effect on physical health of school teachers (Fernandes & Murthy, 1989).

3.1.2  Psychological Strain and Stress

In a longitudinal study of coping behaviour in young engineers, Keenan & Newton (1985) observed that 33% had suffered a stress incident at work whilst most individuals attempted to cope in a positive way, a significant proportion (30%) either expressed helplessness, resentment or withdrawal behaviour.

On a sample of teachers, Pratt (1978) reported that 21% of his teacher sample had elevated General health Questionnaire (GHQ) scores indicating a growing need for medical and psychiatric treatment. Fletcher and Payne (1982) found 19% of the teachers to be depressed beyond the level of psychiatric out-patients. In
addition 22% felt they were going to have a nervous breakdown, of which 53% attributed the cause to their jobs. Schwab and Iwanicki (1982) on a sample of teachers found that role conflict caused emotional exhaustion and fatigue. In studies of the health consequences of coping strategies, avoidance coping has shown a positive association with psychological distress (Billings and Moos 1981).

In India severe psychological consequences of managerial stress have been highlighted by Shah (1978). The psychological and emotional disorders experienced by his subjects were frustration, neurotic behaviour, erratic actions, illusions, fears and bad dreams. Barnes (1983) has highlighted negative consequences of occupational hazards of merchant marine officers, manifested in disturbed through process, thought disintegration, over inclusive thinking, acute affectional anxiety and uncontrollable emotional reactions. Srivastava (1983) in a group of white collar employees concluded that high stress groups had significantly higher obsessive neurosis phobic anxiety, hysterical symptoms, etc. Bhaskar (1986) on a sample of policemen found that they suffered from mental stagnation and psychosocial fatigue (Jagdish, 1987).
3.1.3. **Behavioural Symptoms and Stress**

Higher the stress (as measured by e.g. role conflict and role ambiguity) more is the absenteeism and turnover (Kearns, 1986; Cooper & Davidson, 1987; Rees and Cooper, 1992). Recently Alexander and Walker (1994) on a sample of 758 police officers found that work related stress was related to increased use of alcohol and smoking (see also Staats & Staats 1982; Cooper, 1986; Sutherland & Flin, 1989).

A study on 85 secondary school teachers by Kalekin and Devorah (1986), showed that they experienced fatigue and apathy. Jackson and Suhuler (1986), on a sample of 339 teachers, found that they experienced emotional exhaustion every week and became detached from their students several times in a year. Holt, Fine and Tollefson (1987) on a sample of 134 elementary teachers, found that the incidence of stress related physical illness was significantly correlated with the level of stress, emotional exhaustion and alienation. On a sample of teachers, Seidman and Zager (1991) found stress to lead to maladaptive coping such as excessive alcohol consumption. Pierce and Molloy (1990) on a study of a sample of 750 teachers found that high burnout to lead to higher rate of absenteeism.
Studying women, Wheatley (1991) found that the main manifestation of stress was identified as increased irritability of 70% subjects, this being more marked in working mothers, 25% of the subjects turned to smoking and 23% to alcohol for relieving stress. Another study of 142 working mothers carried out by Kline and Snow (1994) found that those using less avoidance coping reported lesser use of alcohol and tobacco.

In India, Shah (1980) studied the impact of stress and strain on a sample of 80 officers. The physiological changes felt by these offices were fatigue, exhaustion, loss of appetite, indigestion, sleeplessness and dizziness. (Jagdish 1987). Pillai (1987) found that police constables resorted to smoking under high stress conditions.

Literature suggests that the relationship of various indices on organizational stress and health or behaviour symptoms can vary with the nature of occupational groups in organizations. However these variables have not been systematically investigated in India so far (Sharma, 1989).

3.2 STRESSORS AT WORK

Stress can be caused due to too much or too
little work, time pressure and deadlines, having too many decisions to make, fatigue from physical strains of work, environment and excessive travel (see Ivancevich, Matteson and Preston 1982). Nature of relationship with the boss, colleagues and subordinates are other sources of stress (Marshall and Cooper 1979; Maslach and Jackson 1984; Marshall and Cooper 1979; Schuler 1982). It is suggested that work related psychological stressors originate in social structures or processes, affect humans through psychological processes and influence health through four types of interrelated mechanisms—cognitive, emotional, behavioural and physiological (Levi, 1994).

The stressors with which these symptoms are usually related include organizational qualities particularly role conflicts, role efficacy, role ambiguity, role overload and working conditions (Boyd & Pasley, 1989; Dyment, 1990; Jackson & Schuler, 1985; Holloway & Wallinga, 1990; Schuler, Aldag and Brief, 1977; Singh, Agarwala and Malhan, 1981; Spector & O’Connell, 1994). Recently on a study of 53 military instructors Barling and McIntyre (1993) found that role stressors (role overload) lead to emotional exhaustion. Similarly, Akande (1992) on the basis of open ended questionnaires completed by 21 Nigerian small business
owners revealed the causes of stress to be loneliness, immersion in business, work force problems and need for achievement.

Working women, as data point out, experience disproportionately additional stress compared to men, from conflicts between work and familial responsibilities (Sekaran, 1986). Mainly due to women's disproportionately greater responsibility for home and family (Etzion & Pines, 1986; McDonald & Karabik 1991; Pleck & Staines, 1982; Piotrkowski & Repetti, 1984; Katz, 1988). Koch, Booze, Cohn, Mansfield et al. (1991) on a study of traditionally and non traditionally employed women found balancing job and home to be most stressful. However, contrary to these findings Vander Pompe and de Heus (1993) on a study of male and female managers did not find women to experience more stress.

Studies have also indicated teaching to be a stressful occupation (Cacha, 1981; Gold & Bacheler, 1985; Gold. Bachelor & Michael, 1989; Kinnunen, 1989; Early, 1990). The other stressors are administrative practices particularly lack of support and encouragement from administrators (Zabel and Zabel, 1982), personality and environmental factors (Nagy, 1982) role conflict and role ambiguity (Fimian & Blanton, 1984; Capel 1993, Schwab & Iwanicki, 1982; 1981). Blase (1986) collected data from
supplementary, middle and junior high school teachers using Teacher Stress Inventory (TSI). Results indicated that job related factors were considered stressful because they were perceived as interfering primarily with time resources, thereby overloading teachers in a qualitative and quantitative senses. Inadequate disciplinary policy to admonish or reprimand disruptive pupils is a constant stressor. Not only the lack of support but unrealistic expectation by community members and job status problems are identified as stressor (Blase and Pajak 1986; Yvonne, 1987; Payne (1987). Pullis (1992) surveyed 244 teachers of the behaviourally disordered subjects reported that school setting factors, career issues, work load variable were perceived as most stressful. Personal strategies for dealing with stress were examined (see also Bacharach, Bomberger & Mitchell, 1990, Dewe, 1986; Raschke et al. 1985).

Kniveton (1991) on primary and secondary school teachers found the strongest sources of stress to be not enough time for realization and preparation, inadequate salary and poorly motivated students. In studies by Borg and Riding (1993) teachers reported poor working conditions, student misbehaviour, and poor staff relation to be major stressors.

Recently, Okebukola and Jegede (1992) asked 150
science teachers to list situations that they find stressful. The most stressful factors were (i) difficulty in obtaining equipment; (ii) teaching difficult topics; (iii) completing syllabi in the time available; (iv) teaching subjects one is not trained for and (v) new curricula. Gardner and Leak (1994) among 102 college psychology teachers found hostile comments from students to be the major sources of stress. In the past decade or so there have been efforts to find out the stressors that hinder teacher performances. However, Okolo and Eddy (1994) on a study of 157 full time faculty members at a black college found pay to be a stressor. We do find adequate data on teachers sources of stress the world over. The most common stressor one comes across is the student misbehaviour.

In an Indian study Sayeed (1985), on a sample of 125 junior level engineers and technical personnel found low degree of authority to carry out responsibilities, work overload, lack of needed information to be major tension areas. Bhaskar (1986) on a sample of policemen found major stressors to be task pressures, lack of proper training and dehumanizing working conditions.

Pillai (1987) highlighted the stressors of
police personnel as poor pay, lack of career development opportunities, lack of support from public and so on. Role ambiguity was found to be the most important predictor of emotional exhaustion in teachers Batlivala (1990) compared the stressors experienced by Indian executive vis-a-vis his American counterpart. The Indian executives experienced more personal stressors but compared favourably with their American counterparts on the organisational front.

Very few studies in India have been carried out on teachers and particularly female population. Surti (1983), in an earlier study on women found that nurses, and bank employees experience the highest role stress while university and college teachers experience lowest stress. In a later study Fernandes and Murthy (1989), on a sample of middle and secondary school teachers found main stressors to be pupil misbehaviour, time pressures, and poor working conditions. Ushasree and Jamuna (1990) conducted a study to examine role conflict and job stress among special and general school teachers (20 male and 20 female) women teachers in general schools were found to experience greater role conflict and had poor attitude towards their students.

Ghadially and Kumar (1989) on female
professionals aged (24-60 yrs) from different organizations. found salient stressors to be: inadequate pay, under utilization of stress, variability in work load, lack of participation in decision making and conflict between home and job. Later, Tharakan (1992) compared 90 professional working women (doctors, engineers and lawyers) with 90 non-professional working women (teachers, officers and clerks) on their job related stress. Professional working women experienced greater work related stress than the non-professional working women because the expectations of the former group were much higher than that of the latter group. Thus the nature intensity, frequency and type of stressors at work differ in terms of task demands, constraints, available organizational support job hierarchy and occupational types.

3.3 STRESS AND COPING

Interest in the process by which people cope with stress has grown dramatically over the past decade. The conceptualization of coping process is a central aspect of contemporary theories of stress. Coping is viewed as a stabilizing factor that can help individuals maintain physiological adaptation during stressful
periods (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; Moos and Billings, 1982). It is the "overt" and "covert" behaviour taken to reduce or eliminate physiological distress as a stressful condition (Fleishman, 1984).

While there is widespread agreement concerning the importance of coping, there is little agreement concerning the meaning of coping and the mechanisms by which it influences stress and well-being. For this reason it is difficult to organize the coping literature into a cohesive whole (Edwards, 1988). However, measures of coping have been presented (Aldwin et al., 1980; Latack, 1986; Stone & Neale, 1984) and the role of coping in the stress process has been examined. (Folkman & Lazarus, 1980; Newton & Keenan, 1985; Pearlin & Schooler, 1978.

The starting point for much of this research is the conceptual analyses of stress and coping offered by Lazarus, 1966 (see also Lazarus & Folkman, 1984); Lazarus and colleagues (Folkman & Lazarus, 1980; Coyne, Aldwin & Lazarus, 1981; Lazarus, Folkman, 1984) proposed a typology of coping processes that distinguished between "problem focused strategies" (efforts to modify sources of stress) and emotion focused strategies" (attempt to regulate emotional distress caused by the stressors). Similarly, Pareek, (1977, 1983, 1993) also proposed two types of coping strategies which people generally use to
handle stress i.e. dysfunctional (avoidance) and functional (approach) coping styles.

Folkman, Lazarus, Dunkel-Schetter, DeLongis and Gruen (1986) on a sample of community residing adults found that Coping was strongly related to cognitive appraisal and also differentially related to satisfactory and unsatisfactory encounter items. Some studies reveal that the perception of threat determines the stress coping strategy. Roos and Cohen (1986) reported that approach coping behaviour is associated with increased distress and productive worry. However, avoidance coping can interfere with appropriate action when there is possibility of affecting the nature of threat. Holahan and Moos (1987) reported that among healthy adults and patients, active avoidance was positively associated with negative life events. Individuals with more personal and environmental resources were more likely to use avoidance coping. This study was carried out on a community sample of 400 adults and a sample of over 400 patients entering psychiatric treatment for undipolar depressive.

In another study of 291 adults, Aldwin and Revenson (1987) explored the relation between coping strategies and psychological symptoms. It was seen that those in poorer mental health and under greater stress used less adaptive coping strategies but coping efforts
still affected mental health independent of poor symptom level and degree of stress. However, Miller, Brody and Summerton (1987) found that high monitors (those who typically scan for threat relevant information). The sample consisted of 118 patients visiting primary care facility of a hospital.

Knight (1990) examined the correlation between initial perceptions of apparent control, stress arousal and coping style and reported outcomes of job hassles. In another study, Wright (1990) examined relationships between growth oriented coping and subsequent job performance in 42 criminal justice staff personnel employed at a juvenile detention center. Growth orientation was measured using items from ways of coping checklist (WCC). The hypothesized relationship between growth oriented coping and job pay was confirmed. In a Japanese study by Nakano (1991) 207 under graduates completed the revised way of coping checklist and the Hassles scale. Factor analysis yielded one problem focused strategy (problem solving), emotion focused coping strategies (positive cognitive coping, wishful thinking, self blame and avoidance) and a mixed strategy (seeking social support).

It is also evident that the nature of stress
determines the coping strategy. Raggatt (1991) on a sample of 92 male coach drivers (23-56 yrs) found that job demands (e.g. long driving hours) provide single best predictor of maladaptive coping behavior, which in term consistently predicted stress outcomes such as doctor visits and symptom reports. In a recent study Koeske, Kirk and Koeske (1993) on a sample of 79 case managers working with mentally ill patients found that control oriented coping strategies clearly acted as work stress buffers and that those who relied exclusively on avoidance coping strategies reported higher levels of negative consequences. In the same pattern Amir Khan (1990) uncovered general strategies that underlie the myriad specific coping responses to stress. Each stage utilized a separate large heterogeneous sample yet analyses reveal three fundamental strategies problem solving, social support and avoidance.

Studying women, Long (1988) also reported that problem focused coping was used by the more effective copers in her sample of professional and managerial women. Recently, Fry (1995) on a study of 104 female executives found personality attributes of perfectionism to be associated with instrumental coping strategies and preventive coping orientations. In another study Long and Schutz (1995) on data collected from 230 managerial
women found that women were consistent in the way they described themselves over time on all constructs appraisals. Disengagement coping appraisals and Distress were affected more by an underlying trait not accounted for than was engagement coping.

In an earlier study on nurses, Bargagliotti and Trygstad (1987) studied coping patterns that reduce stress. Similarly, Wolfgang (1991) on a sample of 280 nurses, found that they reported more frequent use of active cognitive active behavioural and avoidance coping. In several more studies carried out on samples of nurses, active coping seem to predominate. Becker-carus. Gunther and Hanick (1989) analysed the relationship between situation specific stressors and the coping behaviour of intensive care nurses (24-33 yrs). Findings have been discussed in terms of active and passive coping. Contentment and discontentment with coping. Most stress situations in intensive care were tackled using active external coping strategies, whereas coping with personal stress involved passive strategies. Similarly Olsson, Kandolin and Kauppinen (1990) examined stress and coping style of three shift workers. The group of nurses in irregular shifts experienced more stress than the paper workers. All the groups used active physical and passive relaxive styles to recover from stress. Nurses used more
active cognitive styles compared to the other groups.

Ogus (1992) found that medical ward subjects experienced more burnout and used more counter productive methods for coping with stress than surgical ward subjects, while surgical ward subjects used more preventive coping and existential coping to deal with stress. In a study of 72 nurses in a large general hospital, Tyler and Cushway (1992) administered questionnaires on sources of stress, coping strategies and health outcomes. Negative mental health outcomes were mainly predicted by nurses perception of excessive work loads, leading to adoption of avoidance coping strategy. Kline & Snow (1994) studied 142 females employed in secretarial positions. results showed that the subjects reported less use of avoidance coping. The association between the frequency of coping and the intensity of work stressors have been examined by Dewe (1993) on a sample of 2500 nurses. Results indicate that more reliance on the coping strategies was associated with more stresses, tension and fatigue. Subjects greater reliance of emotion focused strategies may reflect lack of resources and control available to nurses. More frequent coping is associated with more stress intensity.

Educational research over the past 10 to 15
years testifies to an increased concern with the individual and institutional consequences of occupational stress among school teachers at both primary and secondary levels (see reviews by Coates & Thorensen 1976; Kyriacou & Sutcliffe 1977; Philips & Lee 1980). On a sample of women professionals employed full time as college faculty. Amatoa and Fang-Bayette (1987) examined coping responses and reported satisfaction. Subjects reported greater use of problem focused than emotion focused coping responses across several different types of work load conflict situations.

In a similar study Holt (1987) in a sample of 134 elementary school teachers found that despite same levels of stress, low burnout subjects choose more active coping strategies than higher burnout subjects. Seidman and Zager (1991) investigated whether or not factors of Teacher burnout (TBO) were associated with adaptive and maladaptive coping behaviour on a sample of 365 US teachers. These teachers were administered a teacher burnout scale, a demographic questionnaire and a personal behaviour scale. Maladaptive coping mechanism were associated with high TBO while adaptive coping strategies were related to low burnout levels. Pierce & Molloy, (1990) studied 750 school teachers also found higher levels of burnout to lead to more regressive coping
Haney and Bonita (1989) examined the effects of role stress (role conflict, role ambiguity and role overload) and of two kinds of coping effectiveness (eg. problem focused and emotion-focused) on the health concerns of 40 physical education (PE) teachers and Non-PE teacher. Emotion focused coping showed a significantly positive relationship with health concerns suggesting that teachers who perceive this kind of coping as more effective have more health concerns.

Parkes (1990) on a sample of 157 trainee teachers found that direct coping moderated relations between work stress and mental health outcomes whereas suppression (a form of emotion-focused coping) showed an opposite trend. In a study by Bhagat, Allie and Ford (1991) 276 white teachers reported a significant increase in the problem solving techniques when subjects were confronted with work related stressful episodes. Houtman and Bakker (1991) on a sample of 17 male and 22 female student teachers (23-31 yrs.) examined the relationship of coping with the stress of delivering a lecture. Reactivity to coping with the lecturing stressor was predicted by different coping styles.

More recently, Olff, Brosschot and Godaert
(1993) studied 254 male high school teachers (25-55 yrs) and found the coping styles (instrumental task oriented coping and emotion focused coping) to play a positive moderating role in the effect of stressful situations. Elliott, Chartrand and Harkins (1994) stressors found that cognitive processes and Trait Negative Affeciency (TNA) both contribute to negative emotional reactions to occupational stress.

Not many systematic attempts have been made so far to identify the effects of coping strategies on the relation of occupational/job/organizational stress on the well-being of working women belonging to different occupational groups. There is however some evidence of coping strategies used by women in work setting. Koch, Boose, Cohen, Mansfield et al (1991) among 405 traditionally 184 non-traditionally employed women, found non-traditional subjects reported a higher level of work stress than did the traditional subjects. Both groups used significantly fewer problem focused and more emotion focused strategies to deal with their stress at home than at work.

Available evidence of gender difference also indicates that women cope differently than men in different contexts (Billings and Moos, 1981; Stone and Neale, 1984). Parasuraman and Cleek (1984) found that
female managers tended to engage in more adaptive coping than male managers. Similarly, studying school teachers, Greenglass, Burke and Ondrack (1990) found male teachers to experience more work stress but they were less likely to use coping techniques. Female teachers were better able to use coping strategies to reduce stress (see also Koch & Tung, 1980).

Similarly in another recent study Long (1990) examined sex typed traits, the work environment and importance of stressor episodes as predictors of 3 measures of coping (avoidance, problem reappraisal and active problem solving) derived from 132 managers (60 men and 72 women). Women compared with men are more likely to use avoidance and problem reappraisal coping. Consequently an important and noteworthy finding in this study is that simple perceived aspect in the environment like the degree of anxiety induced, an amount of control seen as available, have an impact on the choice of coping strategies.

The empirical studies of coping strategies, are relatively few in number in India (Sharma, 1988). Infact the problems of occupational stress and coping in working women has received little attention in Indian setting. Only Surti (1983) studied the levels of role stress and psychological correlates in working women belonging to
different professional groups (such as researchers, doctors, teachers, bank employees, women entrepreneurs, etc.) While she found significant role stress differences across these occupations, she also demonstrated that women in these professional groups used defensiveness or avoidance styles more often to cope with role stressors. In contrast women entrepreneurs used the approach oriented style more often than these professional women. A later study by Ghadially and Kumar (1988) on a sample of female professionals from different organizations (hospitals, universities and banks), found that in keeping with sex appropriate norms women used more active indirect strategies of coping. Contrary results were obtained by Ahmad, Bhatt and Ahmad (1990) who studied stress and coping strategies among executive technocrats (60 males and 40 females). While men used defensive style more often than women, females largely used the approach style for coping.

In a study of Indian teachers, Abrol (1990) examined the strains experienced and the coping strategies used by 27 males and 27 females teachers (age 25-55 years) with at least five years of experience. Findings indicate that these subjects were suffering from interpersonal and psychological strain, and the used social support cognitive coping and to deal with the felt stress.
Significant differences in the coping strategies adopted by individuals working at different organisational levels are evident in an earlier study by Kaur and Murthy (1986). They studied the coping strategies of the managerial personnel at different organisational levels in public sector. Avoidance strategies were predominant at the junior levels and approach strategies were predominant at the senior level. There was a positive and significant relationship between role stress and avoidance coping strategies. Organizational role stress were negatively and significantly associated with approaches strategies. Gupta & Pratap (1987) studying the executives of BHEL, a public sector undertaking found that the majority of executives used the avoidance coping style to deal with stress.

Srivastava and Singh (1988) on a sample of male technical supervisors investigated the modifying/moderating facts of coping strategies on the relation of organizational role stress and mental health. This study showed that approach coping markedly alleviated and avoidance coping strategies intensified the harmful effect of role stress on mental health. Gupta (1989) examined the coping styles of first
generation entrepreneurs. Intropersistive style was used most frequently, overall approach strategies of coping were used more than the avoidance strategies. A significant negative relationship was found between approach mode of coping and total organizational role stress. (see also Mishra 1991).

In research on the influence of coping responses on adjustment, active problem oriented coping strategies have been found to moderate the adverse influence on negative life events on psychological functioning. Although measures of coping have been presented and the role of coping in the stress process has been examined (Folkman and Lazarus, 1980; Latack 1986; Newton & Keenan, 1985) but we still know relatively little about the specific coping strategies individuals used in dealing stress (Sharma, 1988).

3.4 **SOCIODEMOGRAPHIC FACTORS AND COPING**

A number of studies have pointed to the relation between, gender, level of education, age, work experience, socio-economic status, employment status, available support and reliance on certain coping strategies (Aston & Lavery, 1993, Barth & Schink, 1984, Billings & Moos, 1981, Haan, 1977, House et.al; 1986,

Extending earlier research on social network resources and coping Cronkite and Moos (1984); Holahan and Moos, (1987) found family support to be positively linked to active coping strategies. It was also consistently associated with less reliance on avoidance coping. In recent study on female secretarial workers, Kline and Snow, (1994) found that women using less avoidance coping had greater social support. In an earlier study, by Archer, Kewer, Gordon and Archer
(1991), 165 medical residents (64 women and 101 men aged 23-24 yrs.) completed a questionnaire that consisted of ways of coping questionnaire and a series of questions regarding demographic data, social support system features and residency stress factors. Social support variables were significantly related to the degrees to which the subjects successfully coped with daily stress factors. Women reported higher stress levels.

Job level has proved to be a moderator of stress-well-being relationship (Sharma & Sharma, 1984, Sharma & Chaudhary, 1980). Recently Srivastava, Hagtvet and Sen (1994) on a sample of private sector employees, using Pareek’s ORS questionnaire found that middle level managers experienced most stress out of the three levels of employees studied.

Singh (1986) studied the effects of age and experience on alienation by administering Teachers’ Alienation Scale (TAS) to 530 secondary school teachers. Younger and less experienced school teachers were found to be most alienated, Jamuna and Ushasree, (1990) carried out a study on a sample of women school teachers. They found women in lower age group experienced most job related stress. Thus the whole question of age differences in stress and coping processes, deserves
close attention (McCrae, 1982, Borg and Riding, 1993).

Research has also revealed the effect of school climate and/or principal’s behaviour/support (Blase, Dedrick and Strathe, 1986. Hunter, 1989, (Kremer-Hayon and Wubbels, 1993), colleagues/peer support (Bhagat, Allie & Ford 1989, Dewe, 1985, Greenglass, Pantony and Burke, 1988) on cognitive coping with felt stress.

In an Indian study Abrol (1990) on a sample of 27 female and 27 male teachers found that they used social support and cognitive coping to deal with stress. As is evident from the given review teachers, coping behaviour was determined by principal and peer support (see also Kumari & Sharma, 1990).

On the basis of the studies cited above, it can safely be assumed that social support, domestic support, age and experience are definite factors which determine the stress coping strategies of individuals. As is apparent, not much research in India has been devoted to the socio demographic factors that relate with coping strategies for the stress experienced by professionals, particularly females. Studies on the joint or interactive role of personality and socio-demographic dimensions as determinants of coping strategies are needed (Holahan & Moos, 1987).
3.5 **PERSONALITY DETERMINANTS OF COPING**

One important variable found to buffer the effects of stress is personality (Bluen & Barling, 1987). Research is being carried out on various personality factors which determine the individual differences in coping.

As stated earlier, one personality trait studied in this connection is hardness (Allred & Smith, 1989, Kobasa, 1979, Schmied & Lawler, 1986). Rhodewalt & Zone, (1989) made a study of adult women in which results indicated that non-hardy subjects appraise a significantly higher proportion of their life experiences as undesirable than do hardy subjects.

Some studies have also dealt with optimism and pessimism as a personality disposition in the field of coping. Optimism is significantly related to problem focused coping while pessimism is related to emotion focused coping eg. denial and distancing (Riorden, Johnson & Thomas, 1991, Scheier, Weintraub & Carver, 1986, Stanton & Snider, 1993). Research suggests that optimists differ from pessimists in their stable coping tendencies (Carver, Scheier & Weintraub, 1989, Friedman et al., 1992, Fry, 1995).

Some work has also been done on the personality determinants of teachers though very few studies ascertain their coping strategies. Smith (1985) found teachers with internal locus of control orientation showed significant positive differences in the perception of satisfaction with "work" and "supervisor". In a study of teachers, Soh (1986) administered a teacher locus of
control scale to 114 teachers from technical colleges and secondary schools. However, the results showed no significant differences in both internality/externality and stress in general. Recently, Cheng (1994) studied 588 teachers from 54 secondary schools in Hongkong and found locus of control to be powerful indicator of teachers’ job attitudes and organizational perceptions. Subjects with internal locus of control had a more positive job attitude. Individuals with a greater sense of personal control over stressful events are more likely to use problem focused coping (Capel, 1981; Holt et al. 1987).

In a Indian study Tandon (1981) observed that managers with external control reported experiencing significantly greater job strain health problem and less job satisfaction. In another group of studies, internal locus of control has been found to be positively related to stress (Kumari, 1988; Palnitkar, 1987, Shejwal & Palsane, 1988, Singh, 1986). With regard to coping strategies, Gupta (1989) on a sample of entrepreneurs found that those with the internal locus of control made more frequent use of extra-persistive (approach) style of coping. Further Ganguli & Misra (1988) revealed that perceived control was related to active coping in professionals from upper strata of society.
Investigating the moderating effect of Type-A Behaviour Pattern (personality disposition) stresses and anger, Pestonjee and Singh (1988) found that TABP had a buffering effect on the relationship between the two variables (role stagnation and role expectation) with state anger and four stresses (role stagnation, role erosion, role ambiguity and total stress) with trait anger. In another study Mudgil, Muhar and Bhatia (1992) on a sample of 92 college and University teachers indicated that teachers with low job-satisfaction tend to exhibit Type-A behaviour which renders them susceptible to heart disease.

Though there has been some research on the personality differences patterns in Indian work setting, there is hardly any study which deals with the coping strategies used by these individuals, women in general and teachers in particular.

3.6 STRESS, COPING AND WELL-BEING

Of late it has been acknowledged that individual well-being is influenced not only by the amount of stress experienced by him but also by how the individual copes with stress (Antonovsky, 1979; Holroyd and Lazarus, 1982).
Overall, female professionals may be at greater risk for mental ill health (Davidson & Cooper, 1983). Some studies have found problem (task focused) coping to be positively related to well-being and emotion focused coping negatively related to coping in stress situations (Aston & Lavery, 1993; Felton & Revenson, 1984. Mitchell, et al., 1983, Schroeder & David, 1983, Staats & Staats, 1982). Cushway and Tyler (1994) assessed coping strategies in male and female British psychologists and found that avoidance coping was related to poorer mental health outcomes (Koeske, Kirk and Koeske, 1993, Olff, Broschot and Godaert, 1993). Role ambiguity and role conflict are also seen by significant mediators of psychological well-being (Terry, Nielson & Parchard, 1993).

In a recent study Levi (1994) studied the effects of psychological occupational factors on workers well-being (health and disease). Hart, Wearing and Headey (1995) examined personal and war related factors which contribute to a police officers, positive (beneficial to well-being) and negative (harmful to well-being) work experiences. Problem focused coping resulted in positive work experiences, whereas emotion-focused coping contributed to negative work experiences. Kirckaldy, Cooper, Eysenck and Brown (1994) studied 533
senior police officers from U.K. found two major factors of mental health, negative affectivity and positive affect on psychological well-being in the workplace. Active coping was related to either of the two sub components of mental health (see also Daniels & Guppy, 1994). Brook and Brook (1995) studied 178 managers using a sequential decision tree method that segmented the sample into homogeneous sub-groups and gave insights into the relationship between job stress and mental health.

In earlier Indian studies, Srivastava (1983, 1986) revealed a negative relationship between perceived occupational stress and psychological well-being which were in conformity with the results of an earlier investigation examining the relationship between ORS and symptoms of mental health. Later, Singh (1988) conducted a study to examine the modifying effects of coping strategies (avoidance and approach) which employees adopt to deal with their organizational role stress on the relationship between perceived role stress and mental health. The avoidance strategy adopted by the employees to deal with their organizational role stress enhanced the positive relation between role stress and mental ill health, whereas the approach mode of coping had a buffering effect on the relationship between role stress and mental ill health.
Several Western studies have explored the relationship of stress and various indices of well-being (e.g. Ivancevich et al 1982, Orpen, 1990, Diener, Larson, Levine and Emmons, 1985) with inconclusive outcomes. However in India stress coping and well-being relations have not been explored fully (Sharma, 1985). Moreover the problem lies in the assessment of positive indices of well-being (Kumari and Sharma, 1990).

3.6.1 Stress Coping and Anger

Aggressive coronary patients frequently respond to job related stresses by inappropriate-anger expression. Role of anger-in hypertension, coronary artery and myocardial diseases has also been studied in recent years (Diamond, 1982). However, the direction of association between anger-expression and reactivity varies across studies. Some studies indicate that outward expression of anger is associated with greater blood pressure and heart rate reactivity (Dembroski et.al, 1978), while others show that holding anger-in is associated with greater reactivity (Macdougall, Dembroski & Krantz, 1981, Holroyd & Gorkin, 1983, Sharma, Krishna & Spielberger, 1996).
Recently Houston (1993) found anger, hostility and related behaviors to be associated with cardiovascular diseases. Similarly Smith (1993) found anger, hostility and health to be related. Contrada (1993) studied anger related personality characteristics that have been implicated in the etiology of cardiovascular disorders. Siegman (1993) reviewed evidence regarding effects of experiencing anger, expressing anger and repressing anger on CHD. Of the three ways of coping with anger, the expression of anger is most clearly related to CHD (see also Siegman, 1994) and also to non-vascular disease like chronic gastric ulcer (Sharma, Ghosh & Spielberger, 1995).

Gentry and his colleagues (Gentry, Chesney, Hall and Harburg, 1981. Gentry, Chesney, Gary, Hall and Harburg, 1982) have reported findings that clarify the effects of race, blood pressure and risk of hypertension. Sources that arouse anger have been pointed out in some studies. Hypertensives are known to suppress anger (Vander Ploeg, Van Bumen & Van Brummen, 1985, Keenan and Newton, 1984), indicated that organizational climate, role stress and lack of social support also contribute to the level of environmental frustration, and this frustration was associated with anger reactions and later hostility. Results suggest environmental frustration as an important source of stress in organization.
A few recent studies have also taken gender differences into account with respect of anger. Wade, Witham and Abramowitz (1994) studied a sample of male (35) female (55) university students. The results showed that women were less hostile than men. Similarly Campbell and Muncer (1994) examined the relative contribution of gender-personality differences and occupational role in accounting for differences in social representations of aggression in men (74) and women (26) in the armed forces and men (41) and women (26) in the nursing profession. Results indicate that role and sex are both important correlates of individuals representations of aggression. Stoney and Engebretson (1994) studied gender differences in anger and hostility with respect to CHD (Bjorkquist, Osterman and Lagerspetz, 1994, Van Goozen, Frijda, Kindt & Van der Poll, 1994) drew attention to 2 subscales: rational appearing aggression and social manipulation. It was seen that males used the former type of aggression more often than females while the females used the latter more than males. Anger Situation Questionnaire (ASQ) was specially designed to measures anger proneness in women (Van Goozen, Frijda, Kindt & Van der Poll, 1994).

A study in India by Sharma and Acharya (1989) examined that dominant stress coping strategies and
anger-expression among engineers. Overall, the coping strategy used was determined by the personality disposition of engineers defined in terms of one important component of Type-A personality, i.e. anger proneness. Those with suppressed anger made greater use of avoidance coping but those with expressed anger or greater anger control utilized approach coping (active) as a dominant mode to deal with role stresses. Engineers with avoidance as a dominant mode of coping actively suppressed their anger, engaged in lesser aggressive behaviour. In earlier researches suppressed anger and/or avoidance mode of coping have been related to lower physical and psychological well-being (e.g. Diamond, 1982, Dimsdale et al., 1986, Spilberger et al. 1985. Earlier Kumari (1988) found medicos higher on organizational role stress experienced both high anger in and anger-out than their low role stress counterparts.

Indian studies have yet to examine anger expression and the coping strategy used to deal with anger in organizational role setting.

3.6.2. **Stress, Coping and Anxiety.**

Anxiety is often used as an important sign of inadequate coping and its psychological concomitants are
thought to have negative effects on bodily processes (Marshall & Cooper, 1978). It is an important symptom of work related strain (Kahill, 1988; Gold & Michael 1985). Anxiety has been known to interfere with cognitive functioning and hence coping (e.g. Krohne, 1986). Subjective stress, it is believed generates anxiety (Motowidlo, Packard & Manning, 1986). Trait-anxiety, which is an individual difference in anxiety proneness (Spielberger, 1983), may have implications for how an individual copes with high levels of job demands).

Nakano (1991) found that positive cognitive coping significantly contributed to negative predictions of depression and anxiety. On a sample of 207 undergraduates he found that those using positive cognitive coping were less likely to experience anxiety than their counterparts using negative cognitive coping. Earlier Olah, Torestad and Magnusson (1989) also observed that both trait-anxiety and frequency of stressful experience were related positively to escape coping strategies. It is implied that individuals with predominantly constructive coping solution report less frequent experience of stress and anxiety. (See also Williams & Krane 1992). Emotion - oriented coping was positively related to both trait and state anxiety (Endler & Parker 1990). More recently Kohlmann (1993)
found subjects demonstrating the inconsistent coping pattern scored high on trait-anxiety. Lobel, Gilat and Endler (1993) in a study during Gulf war found that the individuals who used emotion-oriented coping more frequently experienced more state-anxiety (Augestat & Levander, 1992).

Contrary to above findings Torestad et al (1990) showed that girls seemed to be more prone to using escape solutions than do boys when situations are seen as difficult or anxiety prone to control by an action. Stephens and Greenglass (1991), studied female managers. Correlational analysis showed significant and negative relationship between family support and job anxiety. Therefore the more support the women managers got from their families the lower was their job anxiety. For the total coping inventory for stressful situations (CISS) avoidance scale, state-anxiety is positively related to avoidance only for fearless (Dunham, 1978; Endler & Parker, 1990, Jayaratne, Chess & Kunkel, 1986, Richardsen, Burke, Leiter, 1992).

Some investigations have also documented a significant positive association of various organizational role stresses with general and job anxiety across different occupational groups (Gavin and Axelord, 1977) Some studies on teachers found significant
relationship between burnout and anxiety. Gold and Michael (1985) found that high levels of anxiety were related to the emotional exhaustion and depersonalization subscales among practice teachers (Capel, 1993; Gardner & Leak, 1994; Morgan and Krehbiel 1985) found that burned out teachers of emotionally disturbed children reported significantly higher tension and anxiety than teachers who were not burned out. In a study of student teachers, Capel (1993) found that in the initial couple of years of their job they suffered most from anxiety. Gardner and Leak (1994) determined teaching anxiety among 102 college psychology teachers, academic and teaching experience emerged as correlates of the teaching anxiety.

Indian studies shown that increase in anxiety occurs due to occupational hazards (Barnes, 1983); general & job-anxiety are significantly and positively related to organizational role stress (Gupta & Pratap, 1987; Ram & Shejwal, 1985; Sharma & Sharma, 1987, 1989). Studying coping strategies Sharma and Sharma (1989) found that total role stress correlated positively and significantly with both general and job anxiety in case of technocrats and job anxiety in case of bureaucrats. However, there were no significant differences on general anxiety between bureaucrats and technocrats. Studying strategies of coping, Srivastava (1991) found that
approach coping contributes to immediate perceived stress but in the long run reduces anxiety. Avoidance coping, however, may reduce immediate stress but in the long run contributes to greater anxiety. Sharma and Acharya (1991) examined electrical engineers and found that those with higher job anxiety exhibited a greater proportion of avoidance-coping relative to total coping effects on the avoidance coping group scored significantly higher on job anxiety than their approach coping counterparts. In a recent study although coping has not been examined, organizational role stress and job anxiety have been studied by Srivastava, Hagtvet and Sen (1994). The sample consisted of 50 top managers, 50 middle managers and 50 workers. The ORS questionnaire developed by U. Pareek (1983) and job anxiety scale were administered to them. Middle level managers seemed to experience most stress and anxiety.

In India studies of teachers and the relationship of their role stressors with anxiety particularly on females are conspicuous by their absence. Moreover how coping strategy reduces their anxiety is yet to be empirically documented.

3.6.3 **Stress, Coping and Depression**

Depression is a symptom of work related stress
The idea that coping style may be involved in the etiology or maintenance of depression has only recently been the focus of empirical research. Nevertheless, the available evidence suggests that symptomatic depressives do exhibit coping styles that are different from non-depressed persons. Specifically, compared with non-depressed individuals, depressed persons have been found to perceive themselves as having more at stake when appraising stressful situations (Folkman and Lazarus, 1986) and as needing more information before being ready to act (Coyne, Aldwin, and Lazarus, 1981).

With respect to behavior, the results of a number of studies suggest that depressives engage in more emotion-focused coping while non-depressives make more use of problem-focused coping. The class of behaviors includes hostile confrontation (Folkman and Lazarus, 1986) emotional discharge (Billing et al., 1983, Billings and Moos, 1984; Mitchell, Cronkite and Moos, 1983) and seeking emotional support (Coyne et al., 1981; Folkman and Lazarus 1986). Although depressed individuals in one sample were found to use fewer problem-solving behaviors than non-depressed persons (Billings et al. 1983; Billings and Moos 1984; Mitchell et al. 1983) other studies have not been able to replicate this finding.
(Coyne et al 1981; Folkman and Lazarus 1986). Recently Mosley, Perrin, Peral, Dubbert et al (1994) on a sample of medical students completing psychiatry clerkship found clinical depression in 23% students 57% endorsed high levels of somatic distress. Coping efforts classified by engagement strategies were associated with fewer depressive symptoms, while coping efforts classified by disengagement strategies were associated with higher levels of depressive symptoms (Kaiser & Brendt, 1985; Motowidlo, Packard & Manning, 1986).

Studying school teachers' Greenglass and Burke (1988) on a sample of 229 female and 327 male teachers and administrators found that female teachers suffered from more depression and role conflict than male teachers. In a study of school teachers Seidman and Zager (1991) administering the teacher burnout scale (T80) found depression to be related to teacher burnout factor. Considered collectively the results of these cross sectional studies suggest that coping style of depressed people differs from that of non-depressed persons. However, not much work has been done on the relationship of teachers' strategies of coping with their depression.

3.6.4 Stress, Coping and Job Satisfaction

Evidence over the years indicates that among
different occupational groups, role conflict and role ambiguity are negatively related to job satisfaction (Pestonjee and Singh, 1982; Strouse 1983; Sharma and Sharma 1989). Recently, studying 153 employees in a public sector organization, Terry, Nielson and Perchard (1993) found role conflict and role-ambiguity to be significant predictors of job satisfaction (Bersani and Lewis 1985; Chen-Chin-Zue 1985; Terracina 1985; Fordham 1986). Decker and Borgen (1993), found that higher stress predicted lower job satisfaction, the converse was true for coping. Hierarchical, regression revealed high stress-job satisfaction relationship (LaRocco, Tetrick & Meder, 1989; Baglioni, Cooper & Hingley, 1990; Lysonki & Andrews 1990).

However, contrary to the above findings recently Heim (1991) found job satisfaction to be high despite high stress in groups of nurses and female doctors. Therefore the nature of job may determine these relationships.

On a study of managers, Parasuraman and Cleek (1984) found maladaptive coping to moderate the relationships of several role stressors with felt stress and job satisfaction (see also Chadrow, 1984; Stubble Field 1983; William, 1984; Howard et al 1986). Van der Pompe and de Heus (1993) examined differences between
male and female Dutch managers and found work support to be positively related to job satisfaction. Similarly Revicki, et.al., (1993) in a group of emergency medicine residents found peer support to lead to greater job satisfaction. Supervisor/Colleagues support affects the job satisfaction of employees.

Additionally however some empirical and theoretical research suggests that the factors determining teachers job dissatisfaction are for the most part, different from those determining the levels of satisfaction. Rippe (1983) demonstrated that in the case of teachers high role conflict and role ambiguity are more strongly related, to low job satisfaction than in the case of administrators. Thus there is evidence of differences in job level in this type of relationship. (Kyriacou & Sutcliffe, 1981). Frieson and Sarros (1989) assessed 128 school based administrators and 635 teachers in Canada for the extent to which overall work stress, job satisfaction and job challenge were significant predictors of burnout (Hock, 1988; Greenglass & Burke, 1988; Reyes, 1990; Schuttenberg et al. 1990).

In another study, Kniveton (1991) on 155 school teachers (18-50yr) scoring low on job satisfaction scale, were found to be under greater stress. Similarly, McCormick and Solomon (1992) surveyed 111 teachers
concerning the phenomena of perceived occupational satisfaction, dissatisfaction and stress. Recently, Archbald and Porter (1994) studied 195 teachers to determine the influence of curriculum control policies on their job satisfaction. Very few studies dealing with job stress and job satisfaction have considered the role of coping, particularly in the field of educational research.

In India not many studies have dealt with the modifying role of coping strategies vis-a-vis the relationship of stress and job satisfaction. Pestonjee and Singh (1982) in a study of officers in a private sector organization concluded the overall index of role stress is negatively associated with dimensions of job satisfaction (on-the-job and off-the-job areas) and also with overall job satisfaction. Individuals at different job levels had different job satisfaction (Komarraju, 1981) Mehta and Agarwal (1986) studying bank employees found those with repression tendency had more job satisfaction those with sensitization.

In an earlier study, Jagdish and Srivastava (1983) found role stress to be negatively related to job satisfaction. Mishra (1987) also confirmed on a sample of the supervisors working at Diesel Locomotive Works, Varanasi, that occupational stress and job satisfaction
have a significantly negative relationship. Bhushan and Sinha (1987) found that employees in the public sector expressed significantly higher overall job satisfaction with regard to fringe benefits rank of the employees was of significant influence, executives had higher job satisfaction than blue collar workers. Therefore, higher the position higher is the job satisfaction. The relationship between organizational role stress and job satisfaction has also been shown to be dependent on job status (Jagdish, 1987; Sharma & Sharma, 1987; Tharakan, 1992).

A few studies of Indian school teachers too explore job satisfaction in relation to stress and well-being. On studying, 200 Indian teachers, Gakhar and Sachdeva (1987) found job satisfaction to increase as their educational level increased from primary through middle to secondary level teaching. Government school teachers reported greater job satisfaction than their counterparts working in private schools.

(Ushasree and Jamuna (1990) on a study of school teachers found female teachers experiencing stress, to have less job satisfaction. In another recent study Mukthamath, Gaonkar and Khadi (1991) assessed job involvement and job satisfaction with 176 married female teachers from colleges in India. Results showed job
satisfaction to be most influenced by factors of family responsibility and attitude towards teaching. Mudgil, Muhar and Bhatia (1992) on a sample of 82 college and University teachers indicated that teachers with low job satisfaction tend to exhibit Type A behavior (see also Sekaran, 1984; Surti, 1983; Taj & Rao, 1991).

These studies amply demonstrate that different organizational role stress measures and job satisfaction are negatively related. However, the magnitude of the relationship varies with the nature of sample, the tools used and organizations studied. While most of the related research on different occupational groups in the Western settings has documented a strong negative association between various organizational role stresses on the one hand, and the facets of job satisfaction on the other, a few studies in India have also dealt with this relationship with confirming outcomes (Mehra & Mishra, 1993; Pestonjee and Singh, 1992; Sharma and Sharma, 1988; Singh et al 1981).

3.7 OVERVIEW

From the preceding review it is evident that a sizeable number of studies on stress in organization have been carried out in India in the recent years. However
research on the strategies of coping with stress and their impact on well-being/mental health has only recently gathered some momentum.

Though there has been a steady increase in the volume of stress research on the female professionals, including school teachers, the gender-specific strategies or styles of coping with organizational/occupational stress are yet to be fully explored. Studies have shown teaching to be a highly stressful profession among the human service professions. Studying middle and secondary school teachers, Fernandes and Murthy (1989) found that the teachers experienced stress and emotional exhaustion, major stressors being pupil misbehavior, time pressures and poor working conditions. Later Ushasree and Jamuna (1990) examined role conflict and job stress among special and general school teachers (both male and females). Results showed female teachers of general schools experienced greater role conflict and a had poorer attitude towards their students. In another study Jamuna and Ushasree (1990), on a sample of 120 female teachers from public and private schools, found that teachers in lower age groups had more burnout. As is obvious none of such studies on teachers deal with the coping modes that the teachers used to cope with work stress.
In an earlier study, the projective instruments for coping styles (role PICS) developed in India by Pareek (1983) were used and the profiles of coping styles adopted by professional women were drawn (the sample included college and university teachers). It was found that all professional women most often adopt the defensive styles to cope with stress, than functional or approach oriented styles. Women entrepreneurs, however used approach oriented styles more than professional women (Surti, 1983) using Pareek's Role PICS (1983), Ahmad, Bhatt and Ahmad (1990) studied stress and coping strategies among male and female technocrats, a difference was observed in the coping styles of the male and the females while the men used a defensive style more often than women, the female technocrats largely used the approach style of coping.

All such information illustrates that there are gender-specific, professional-specific and organizational-specific stressors, coping styles that determine well-being consequences. In view of the above absence of symptomatic research in Indian Socio-cultural context no firm generalizations can be made.

Studies have shown that within the same occupational group, job levels can lead to different coping strategies. Kaur and Murthy (1986) studied the
coping strategies of the managerial personnel at different organizational levels in the public sector. The results indicated a significant difference in the coping strategies adopted by the individuals working at different levels in the organization, avoidance strategy was predominant at the junior level (see also Sen, 1981; Sharma & Sharma, 1984).

Although two comprehensive studies have dealt with the correlates and moderates of role stress on bureaucrats and technocrats (Sharma, 1984) and on medicos (Kumari & Sharma, 1990), none of these investigated the coping styles as moderators. Singh (1988) tested the moderating effect of the coping strategies in the relationship between ORS and mental health on 300 employees of LIC. The avoidance mode of coping was found to markedly enhance the positive correlation between perceived role stress and mental health, on the contrary approach mode of coping markedly moderated the degree of positive relationship between role stress and mental health. Similar results were obtained by Srivastava and Singh (1987) in an earlier study on 300 technical supervisors. They found that both avoidance and approach coping strategies modified the relationship between role stressors and mental ill-health, through in opposite direction. In another study using the psychometric
instruments developed by Pareek (1983c & 1983d) ORS scale and Role PICS, Gupta (1988) on a sample of executives found that the three coping styles namely defensive, impunitive and intropersistive were used more than the other styles.

It may also be noted from the preceding review that in a number of cases the tools standardized in the West have been used with modifications. Moreover one or two indicators of Psychological Well-Being are considered. To arrive at a comprehensive assessment of PWB, one needs to use its multiple indicators both negative as well as positive. Furthermore, well adapted/standardized tests of organizational role stress indicators of PWB and coping styles relevant to Indian Sociocultural milieu are needed to arrive at sound conclusions. This study takes care of most of these issues.

3.8. HYPOTHESES

I.A The relationship Organizational Role Stress with the negative indicators (anger-expression; anger-out, anger-in, anger-control, trait-anxiety and depression) of Psychological well-being will be positive.
The relationship of Organizational Role Stress with the positive indicators (job satisfaction, on-the-Job satisfaction, off-the-job satisfaction and general well-being) of Psychological Well-Being will be negative.

Coping strategies (Avoidance and Approach) will have a moderating effect, in that these will influence the direction or strength of the relationships between organizational role stress with negative indicators (anger-expression; trait-anxiety, depression) and positive indicators (Job satisfaction, general well-being) of Psychological well-being.

The teachers in the avoidance coping group will score higher on organizational role stress and negative indicators of psychological well-being (anger-expression; anger-out, anger-in, anger-control, trait-anxiety, depression) as compared to their approach coping counterparts.

The teachers in the avoidance coping group will score lower on positive indicators of psychological well-being (job satisfaction, on-the-job satisfaction, off-the-job satisfaction
and general well-being) as compared to their approach coping counterparts.

IV. Stress sub coping strategies (avoidance-internality, avoidance-externality, approach-internality and approach-externality) will have differential effects on organizational role stress, its components and psychological well-being as indexed by its negative indicators (anger-expression, trait-anxiety and depression) and positive indicators (job satisfaction and general well-being) of psychological well being.